DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 247 573 CS 208 411

AUTHOR Groves, Peggy L.
TITLE The Writing of Micronesian ESL Students.
PUB DATE [80]
NOTE 31p.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Case Studies; *Cultural Influences; *English (Second Language); Grade 9; Secondary Education; *Student Behavior; Syntax; *Writing (Composition); *Writing Evaluation; Writing Processes; *Writing Research; Writing Skills
IDENTIFIERS *Micronesians; Student Journals

ABSTRACT

A study explored the content and syntax in the writing of 15 ninth grade Micronesian students for whom English is a second language. Their composing behavior was also observed to determine whether Micronesian students exhibit distinctive composing behaviors or produce writing paralleling their degree of contact with Western culture. A questionnaire was used to determine subjects' exposure to Western culture. Writing behaviors were observed as students wrote in their journals, and writing characteristics were logged from journal entries. Two case study subjects, one less exposed and one more exposed to Western culture, were observed during eight sustained silent writing sessions. The analyses revealed that journal entries for all 15 subjects contained mostly original prose narratives with island settings in the first person point of view. Fewer compositions were written in either the descriptive or the expository mode. Adverb clauses occurred most frequently, and noun clauses occurred more often than did adjective clauses. Very few predrafting behaviors were observed. During drafting, the subjects exhibited (1) pauses while writing, (2) adjustments to text, (3) rereading of text, and (4) accompanying speech. The two case study subjects differed considerably in their degree of contact with Western culture and displayed notable differences in the content and syntax of their writing, as well as in their composing behaviors. (The questionnaire on exposure to Western culture is included.) (HTH)

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ED247573

THE WRITING OF MICRONESIAN ESL STUDENTS

Peggy L. Groves
Classroom Teacher
Kwethluk Community School
General Delivery
Kwethluk, Alaska 99621
(907) 757-6813 or 757-6415

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INTRODUCTION

While teaching at Outer Islands High School in Yap State of the Caroline Islands in the Western Pacific, the researcher, an American, became aware of the many problems involved in teaching native students to write in English as their second language. In the first place, many students did not speak English well, and their own native language traditionally had never been written*

Needed was a composition program to provide teaching/learning strategies sensitive to the aspects of writing in English as a second language, including cultural considerations. In essence, such a writing program would have to deal effectively with the unique problems encountered by Micronesian students as they learned standard written English. Such a program could not be developed, however, without first taking a closer look at Micronesian students as writers of English. Unfortunately, there was a dearth of published information on the subject, so the present study was undertaken in part to gather systematically the necessary information about Micronesian student writers.

Initially, the formulating of researchable questions provided a first priority. In reviewing general research about composing to define the parameters of this study, a

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*In most cases, the native language of the students was one of dialects of the Trukese language: Ulithian, Woleian, or Satawalese.

good beginning point was provided by Emig (1971). Having surveyed important work of Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer (1963), Rohman and Wiecke (1964), Tovatt and Miller (1967), and others, Emig had firmly established the case for examining the process of composing, rather than the written products alone.

Her concern for the study of composing processes became more apparent in the literature of the seventies, where more and more frequently, researcher observations of students while actually composing and interviews with students after composing were found to be fruitful methods for "closing in" on composing processes. In particular, Graves' (1973, 1979) observation methods appeared uniquely adaptable to the proposed investigation of Micronesian student writers in this study. Useful strategies also were suggested by Stallard (1974), Murray (1978) and Petty (1978). In terms of only written products, this study made extensive use of the content analyses used by both Emig (1971) and Graves (1973). Additional descriptive control was provided by several measures of syntactic maturity earlier described in the work of Hunt (1965), O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris (1967), O'Hare (1973), and Evans (1977, 1979). As such measures focused upon quantified sentence structures rather than upon the conventions of written language (spelling, punctuation, etc.), they seemed to be less subject to the bias anticipated in non-native writers' work.

Cross cultural considerations addressed in this study concerned native-speaking Micronesians attending a high school where, not only instruction in English as a second language, but also a typical American curriculum had been implemented. Naturally, there were many contextual differences to be described in any study, some obvious, some subtle. In this regard, the researcher found clarification from Hall (1976) who explained the importance of social context surrounding individual behavior. That is, studying individuals without thoroughly explaining context would distort interpretation of their writing or speaking. Hall suggested that man's transactions can be classified as "high-," "low-," and "middle-context." In "high-context" cultures most of the information is contained in the receiver and the setting, with only minimal information being contained in the message itself. In "low-context" cultures, the reverse is true. Most of the information must be contained in the message or risk begging questions. Hall characterized the overall American culture as "low-context," while less technological cultures are usually "high-context."

In relation to the study of composing written work, Graves (1980) likewise stressed the importance of understanding the context within which composing takes place. Specifically, he suggested that observations of children's composing behavior, as well as analysis of products of composing, require awareness of the stimulus for writing, surrounding classroom and school influences, and the broader ethnographic context within which the writer composes.

From these background notions then, four questions were developed to guide the study, encompassing both attention to cultural considerations and the composing behaviors as well as the products of such behavior:

1. What is the content in the writing of Mirconesian ninth graders writing in English as a second language?

2. What syntactic elements are evident in these students' writing?

3. What composing behaviors are present when the students compose in written English?

4. Do Micronesian ninth graders exhibit either distinctive composing behaviors or written products paralleling their degree of contact with Western culture?

Design of the Study

The subjects in this study were 15 ninth grade students attending Outer Islands High School on Falalop, Ulithi, in the State of Yap, Federated States of Micronesia. All of them were members of the most advanced group in English proficiency, determined by results of an English placement test, and all of them were members of the same English class at the high school.

In order to distinguish subjects who had been less exposed from those who had been more exposed to Western

culture, the subjects were administered a questionnaire (see Appendix) developed by the researcher specifically for that purpose. After scoring the questionnaire, four students who made higher scores were selected for the study as Group M--the "More Exposed to Western Culture" group. Conversely, the four low scorers were selected to participate as Group L--the "Less Exposed to Western Culture" group. None of the students were aware that such groups had been formed. Ultimately, one member from each group, Maria from Group M, and Henry from Group L, were selected as focused case-study subjects.

Data Collection

The procedures for data collection were based on those of Graves (1973), modified for the present study and collected in three phases. During Phase I, the researcher logged all writings collected from journals of all 15 students. The writings were noted for length and analyzed for content. The journal writings of the four students in Group M and the four students in Group L were subjected to intensive analysis, particularly of syntax.

During Phase II the researcher recorded the behaviors observed as the students in Groups M and L wrote in journals during a daily 10-minute period of sustained silent writing. Six of the eight students were each observed during one sustained silent writing session. The two case study subjects, Maria and Henry, were each observed during eight sustained

silent writing sessions. Brief interviews with the students following each observation clarified detached observation. Transcripts of the students' writing episodes, based on journal entries, researcher observations, and student interviews, were then prepared.

During Phase III, other case-study data for Maria of Group M, and Henry of Group L were collected by means of interviews with families, teachers,and surrogate parents called houseparents. In addition, an examination of the student's educational history and extended observations of these two students in the classroom were carried out.

Data Analysis

The journal entries for all 15 students (357 entries), writing over a period of 25 days, were analyzed for five components: 1) types of writing (verse or prose); 2) source of ideas for the writing; 3) setting evident in the writing; 4) apparent rhetorical intent; and 5) point of view. Original compositions (those not obviously copied from classroom charts or class texts) produced by the members of Groups M and L were segmented into T-units according to the rules established by O'Hare (1973). Then eight factors of syntactic maturity were determined: words per T-unit, clauses per T-unit, words per clause, noun clauses per T-unit, adverb clauses per T-unit, adjective clauses per T-unit, Nominalization Index (ratio of the average number of noun clauses per T-unit), and Subordination Index (ratio of average number of adjective and adverb clauses per T-unit).

A transcript from one observed writing episode for each student in groups M and L were analyzed for both a variety of behaviors (pauses, adjustment to text, rereading text, and accompanying speech) and the frequency with which each type occurred. Each behavior type was then categorized according to purpose--the reason why the student behaved in a certain way. The researcher's comments about the pre-drafting and post-drafting phases of the composing episode were finally analyzed for recurring patterns of behavior.

In addition to these analyses, Phase III data from interviews concerning the case study subjects were examined to develop a description of student writers who differed in their degree of exposure to Western culture.

Findings

Journal entries for all 15 students mostly contained original prose narratives with island settings in the first person point of view. Fewer compositions were written in either the descriptive or expository modes (Table 1). Other types represented were verse writings, and retold or copied stories.

The syntactic analysis of the clauses from both groups M and L combined, revealed that adverb clauses occurred most frequently, and that noun clauses occurred more often than did adjective clauses (Table 2). Comparatively, the Micronesian ninth graders wrote fewer words per T-unit, fewer words per clause, and fewer adjective clauses per T-unit than did the eighth graders in Hunt's (1965) study. On the

Table 1

Apparent Rhetorical Intent of Prose Compositions

(15 Students)

Rhetorical Intent	Number of Compositions	Percent[a]
Narrative	309	74
Descriptive	76	18
Expository	33	8
Total	418	

[a]Calculated as percent of 418

Table 2

Number of Clauses and T-units Identified in Original and Retold Compositions

(8 Students)

Clauses	Number
Adverb	588
Noun	404
Adjective	96
Total subordinate	1,058
Total T-units	2,450

other hand, these Micronesian students wrote about the same number of overall clauses per T-unit, but they wrote more noun clauses per T-unit and more adverb clauses per T-unit than did Hunt's eighth grade subjects.

Very few pre-drafting behaviors were observed. During drafting, the ninth graders exhibited four types of behavior: pauses while writing, adjustments to text, rereading of text, and accompanying speech. Pauses accounted for almost half the observed behaviors. Students paused most frequently to think. They also paused to reread or make adjustments, and occasionally they paused because of extraneous or personal distractions.

Seven concerns were identified as reasons for adjustments to text (Table 3), most of these being made for reasons of spelling and syntax. The extent of rereading was usually one sentence or less, and students usually did not make adjustments after rereading. The rereading seemed to serve three purposes: to decide what to write next, to decide how to express an idea, and to proofread. Of these, it was ascertained students reread most frequently to decide what to write next.

The students demonstrated three types of accompanying speech behaviors: forming words and/or letter names, whispering, and overt speech. Most accompanying speech behaviors occurred while writing and rereading. The most frequent speech behavior was forming words and/or letter names, apparently to formulate spelling.

Table 3

Summary of Purposes of Adjustment Behaviors Observed During Writing Episodes

(8 Students)

Purpose of Adjustment	Number of Times Observed	Percent[a]
Spelling concerns	14	19
Syntactic concerns	12	16
Capitalization	11	15
Verb confusion	10	14
Handwriting or aesthetics	10	14
Lexical concerns	9	12
Adjustments in fact	3	4
Undetermined	4	5
Total	73	

[a]Calculated as percent of 73

The post-drafting phase of composing was very short. When the teacher called time to stop writing, students hurriedly completed words or sentences, stopped writing, and closed their books.

There were differences between Group M and Group L when comparisons were made for content, syntax, and composing behaviors. While it has been noted that both groups most often produced original prose narratives with an island setting, Group M had a higher percentage of such narrative compositions than did Group L. Group L had higher percent-

ages for retold writings, for compositions with outside settings, and for descriptive and expository writings.

Syntactic comparisons between the groups revealed that while both groups wrote adverb, adjective, and noun clauses, Group L wrote more of each kind. Group L's means were higher on all measures of syntactic maturity except for adjective clauses per T-unit, where the means for the groups were about the same (Table 4).

Both groups demonstrated four types of composing behaviors. In order of frequency, Group L paused, made adjustments, reread, and exhibited accompanying speech. The order of frequency was the same for Group M for pausing and adjustments, but they reread and exhibited accompanying speech with equal frequency.

The groups were similar in that they both paused primarily to think about what to say next. However, their primary reasons for making adjustments were different. While Group M frequently made adjustments because of spelling, verb confusion, and lexical concerns, Group L's adjustments were frequently made because of capitalization, syntax, and handwriting or aesthetic concerns.

Rereading behavior for the two groups was similar in that they both usually reread one sentence or less and usually made no adjustment after rereading. They were different in that Group M reread to proofread and to decide what to write, while Group L reread both for these two purposes and for one additional purpose--to decide how to express an idea.

Table 4

Comparison of Means for Eight Factors of Syntactic Maturity Evident in Original and Retold Compositions: Groups M and L

Factor	Group	
	M	L
Words per T-unit	9.499	11.160
Clauses per T-unit	1.353	1.512
Words per clause	7.017	7.376
Noun clauses per T-unit	.109	.221
Adverb clauses per T-unit	.206	.249
Adjective clauses per T-unit	.036	.041
Nominalization Index	.109	.221
Subordination Index	.243	.290

Comparisons of accompanying speech behavior revealed that while both groups exhibited forming words and/or letter names and whispering behaviors, Group M also used overt language. Group M exhibited accompanying speech most frequently during physical writing; accompanying speech was most evident for Group L during rereading.

Case Studies

The two case-study subjects, Maria and Henry, differed considerably in their degree of contact with Western culture. They displayed notable differences in both the content and syntax of their writing, as well as in their composing behaviors.

Maria's home was a village on Yap Islands, about 100 miles from the boarding school. Her house was made of wood with a corrugated metal roof, a relatively modern island home. Both of Maria's parents spoke English and both worked outside the home. Extended family members were an integral part of Maria's life and she learned traditional Yapese skills from these knowledgeable people.

Maria attended school for the first eight grades at a parochial school. Her parents valued education and encouraged Maria and her brothers and sisters to study and learn from both the Yapese and American cultures. The children were permitted to watch movies and TV now and then, and the father occasionally spoke to them in English as he helped them with their homework.

In contrast to Maria, Henry's home was Ifalik Atoll, an island group about 325 miles east of Ulithi, the site of Outer Islands High School. Henry's house was made of coconut and pandanas tree products, as were most of the other buildings on the island. Henry's parents did not speak English, and family life revolved around traditional activities of food gathering. Henry was expected to complete daily chores such as gathering coconuts, "cutting" a tree to get coconut sap, and feeding the pigs. Motor boats were not commonly used on the islands because the chiefs wanted to keep the fishing customs intact; thus, Henry learned to dive and fish much as men of his island had done for hundreds of years in the past. He was considered by members of his extended

family to be an ideal son because of his knowledge of traditional skills and because of the great respect he demonstrated for his parents. Before attending the high school Henry had traveled very little. He rarely had seen movies, and did not speak or read English at home, although he did study it in the small elementary school he attended on his home island of Ifalik.

Both Maria and Henry were considered by their high school teachers to be good students. Henry did not always do outstanding work, but he was persistent and hard working. Maria often completed her work earlier than most of her classmates and she was sometimes bored. Both students were respected by their classmates and both frequently assisted others. In class, Henry carefully followed the customs of the islands as he perceived them, while Maria, in a break with traditional culture, spoke quite openly and sometimes disagreed with her classmates. This did not appear to adversely affect her relationship with the teachers or other students.

In their sustained silent writing journals, both Maria and Henry wrote primarily original prose narratives with island settings told from a first person point of view. However, there were marked differences in some areas. While Maria's writings contained some verse, some copied compositions, and some compositions with a setting outside the islands, Henry wrote only original prose composition with an island setting. Other differences were found in apparent rhetorical

intent. Maria wrote narrative and descriptive, but no expository compositions; Henry wrote narrative and expository, but no descriptive compositions.

There were also some syntactic differences in their written products. Henry wrote more noun and adjective clauses; Maria wrote more adverb clauses. Henry used a greater variety of subordinating conjunctions, indefinite pronouns, and relative pronouns, while Maria repeatedly used the same words to introduce the various clauses. Henry had higher scores on six factors of syntactic maturity, but Maria wrote more words per clause and had more adverb clauses per T-unit than Henry (Table 5).

Table 5

Comparison of Means for Eight Factors of Syntactic Maturity Evident in Original and Retold Compositions: Maria and Henry

Factor	Maria	Henry
Words per T-unit	10.040	11.585
Clauses per T-unit	1.391	1.647
Words per clause	7.213	7.030
Adverb clauses per T-unit	.314	.292
Noun clauses per T-unit	.072	.307
Adjective clauses per T-unit	.005	.047
Nominalization Index	.072	.307
Subordination Index	.319	.340

Maria and Henry each demonstrated the same four types of composing behaviors, but there were differences in the order of frequency the behaviors occurred, and in the purpose of the behaviors. In order of frequency, Maria paused, made adjustments to written text, exhibited accompanying speech, and reread. The order of frequency for Henry was the same as for Maria for pausing and adjustments, but he reread more frequently than he exhibited accompanying speech. The purpose of Maria's behaviors appeared to center around "what" to write. She also wanted her papers to be "correct" and thus was concerned with such things as spelling and word choice. While Henry, too, showed concern with these factors, he appeared to struggle more with the "how" of the English language. He was still not quite sure how words fit together to make sentences.

Discussion

Elements of Content

The content of their writing demonstrated that the Micronesian students chose a mode of discourse as well as topics, ideas, and settings which were most familiar to them. Following their cultural heritage, they told stories of the day's events, much as if they were sitting in their family compounds during the evenings, exchanging newstidbits, or telling tall tales or old legends. However, while the oral stories would have contained great embellishments of story line, ideas, and characters designed to entertain and instruct, the written products usually contained simple

chronologies of events and only rarely exhibited a playful, entertaining aspect. The boys had not yet realized that the kinds of stories they exchanged in the canoe houses could be written down and savored again at a later time. The girls did not appear to consider the possibility that the excitement of the stories they shared with other girls and older women as they all prepared food for a feast could be expressed in writing as well as in oral conversation.

Classroom study of the students' first language story-telling conventions might give a needed dimension to the students' written compositions. Writing, especially in a second language, is lonely and strenuous, and island people are gregarious folk. It is much more fun to talk and laugh together, watching the faces of the group for desired effect of spoken words, than to sit quietly alone and write silent words for an unseen audience. Having an appreciative peer audience in the classroom for their written products might encourage the students to discover the satisfaction of reaching people through written words. Writing in their second language might then become a source of joy and satisfaction, just as is oral story-telling in their first language.

There were some notable similarities and differences in the written products of students who had been more exposed to Western culture and those who had been less exposed. Students who had been more exposed to Western culture displayed more

confidence in themselves as sources of ideas for writing. The Group L students, who had probably spent less time reading and writing English, and who had been less exposed to a variety of experiences associated with English-speaking societies, relied more on traditional stories they had heard and group stories they had helped to create during dictation sessions in English class. Because of this reliance, the writings of Group L exhibited a greater range of territorial setting.

Perhaps Micronesian students would benefit from a wide range of reading in various discourse modes. Exposure to a variety of modes might inspire students like those in Group M to experiment more in their writing. Such exposure might help students like those in Group L to become more dependent on themselves for writing ideas. If students become familiar with the various modes, they have a greater range of choices.

Students who had been less exposed to Western culture appeared more willing than students who had been more exposed to Western culture to include affective components in their writing. Henry and his group were more child-like, more honest in self-disclosure, and more in tune with their traditions. Since they did not yet know all the rules of English syntax, they still maintained a playful, open approach to their writing. It is likely that when Group L students learn more rules, their writing will become more like that of Group M's, losing its freshness for a while. However,

perhaps using a strategy of student-teacher conferences as a regular component of the composition class would help students to mairtain or recapture this affective element. If there exists a high level of trust between student and teacher, students may feel confident enough to risk including more of themselves in their writing.

Syntax

The written syntax of the students appeared to be influenced by at least three factors: 1) the oral English program at the high school, 2) the students' first language story-telling conventions, and 3) the students' perceptions of how meaning is transmitted.

At the time of the study, the ninth graders participated in oral English drills which contained such sentences as these:

When I got up this morning, I washed my face.

After I washed my face, I combed my hair.

Students apprently felt comfortable with this construction and found it helpful in writing of their daily activities. Further, the use of clauses introduced by when and after was consistent with the reportorial discourse mode of their first language.

Embellishments, an important aspect of Micronesian story-telling, were reflected in a limited way by use of if, after, and because to introduce adverb clauses. These particular constructions were not used to explore abstract

causes and conditions; rather, they were used to explain concrete, tangible occurrences. Typical examples are sentences written by Matthew, Peter, and Timothy:

Matthew: And also if the chief announced that, all the man would go to fish.

Peter: After he finished eating he went inside the house and rest.

Timothy: He went in the white house and some man tried to kill him but cannot because he was a clever man.

Noun clauses used as the object of the verb told were indicative of verbal transactions observed by students and reported in their writings. This type of reporting is an important part of family gatherings and other group conversations which are carried on in the first language. Typical examples can be seen in sentences by Thomas and Lorita:

Thomas: I told them that I was on the sail canoe to go out and fished outside the lagoon.

Lorita: I told Merciana that I have sweet coconut for her.

The relatively frequent use of adverb and noun clauses and the infrequent use of adjective clauses also may be attributed to cultural influences. Student writers from a society described by Hall (1976) as a high context culture--one in which most of the information is preprogrammed in the sender and receiver, rather than in the message of the

transaction--may not see the need for giving additional descriptive information in their writing. The oral tradition of the Micronesian culture does not call for lengthy description unless it is for the purpose of entertainment. The students may feel that they need to supply minimal information because they assume that the reader already knows a great deal about the topic. The emphasis in the students' writing was on relating actions and reporting verbal transactions. For this type of writing, once the actors were briefly identified and the setting was established, the students apparently did not see the need for further description. In short, they were more concerned with enriching the meaning of the verb than elaborating the meaning of the subject noun in their sentences.

If Micronesian students can be made aware that, in English, specific meaning is transmitted primarily through the message, rather than residing primarily in the physical setting and/or the receiver, their syntax may eventually reflect additional information-bearing structures through the more extensive use of adjective clauses. They might also benefit from a study of first language story-telling conventions. A comparison between first language conventions and second language narrative conventions could help the students to make conscientious syntactic choices. Further, an oral, as well as written, sentence combining program might speed them along the path to becoming more mature writers.

Students who had been more exposed to Western culture had a greater understanding of how to balance semantics and

syntax to convey messages. They had rather good understanding of the conventions of writing and the meanings of words, and they strove to produce compositions which met their perceived standards. Group M tended to make content choices based on syntactic elements they could control. Group L did not limit content choices as much because they did not yet feel comfortable with any given set of syntactic elements. Group L students, therefore, provided the reader with more information which resulted in more interesting compositions and generally higher scores on factors of syntactic maturity.

However, Group L students may not have been developmentally more advanced than Group M despite these high scores. Perhaps semantics should be considered when syntactic maturity is measured in the writing of students who are composing in English as a second language. While Group M students seemed to have a rather good understanding of how words and sentences work together to create meaning, Group L students appeared to be struggling to find the proper words and sentence structures to convey intended meaning. The reader usually understood the message in Group M's writings, but frequently had to make assumptions about messages contained in Group L's writing.

In this study the term maturity applied to syntactic development in students' writing. Perhaps measures of syntactic maturity for students writing in English as a second language should include a component which considers semantics in relation to syntax. In the final analysis, successful writing should reflect a balance between knowledge of syntax and knowledge of semantics.

Behaviors

The constraints of the sustained silent writing composing circumstance appeared to influence the pre-drafting, drafting, and post-drafting behaviors of the students. Since the students had limited time, they appeared to take the path of least effort. They spent little time in pre-drafting activities. They chose a familiar discourse mode and familiar subject matter, settings, and syntax. They were somewhat aware of their English teacher as reader of their writing because they reread to "check" their work and struggled with such concerns as verb usage and spelling. Accompanying speech appeared to help students formulate ideas and aid in the proofreading process. The students were not very concerned with extensive rewritings, however. Adjustments were limited, for the most part, to conventions of spelling and usage.

In another composing circumstance, the students' behaviors may have been different. Journal writing in a sustained silent writing situation may serve best just to get the students to put words on paper--a task that is not easy for many Micronesian students. The teacher might use their journals to gauge what composition tasks to set before the students in a different circumstance of composing. During student-teacher conferences, the idea of planning and drafting could be discussed. Classroom publishing might give students the incentive to revise and rewrite their compositions. Writing is hard for these students and the idea of rewriting may overwhelm them unless care is taken.

To reach beyond their native cultures, writing in English is important to Micronesian students and to a number of other groups from oral traditions. Since their first languages are not written, students depend on their proficiency in their second language to help them communicate their ideas to the larger world. Teachers of these students need a great deal more knowledge about how young people learn to write in English as a second language. The challenge to students, teachers and researchers is formidable, yet exciting.

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APPENDIX

EXPOSURE TO WESTERN CULTURE QUESTIONNAIRE

The EWC Questionnaire was developed by the researcher to distinguish subjects who had been less exposed from those more exposed to Western culture. The questionnaire consisted of 10 main questions numbered 1 to 10, with four possible answers for each question. The answers were lettered "A", "B", "C", and "D." Redundant questions were included for each main question. To find a score for each subject, a value of one point was given for each "A" answer; two points were given for each "B" answer; three points were given for each "C" answer; and four points were given for each "D" answer. Since the redundant questions were included only to check the validity of the answers to the main questions, they were not scored. All "A" answers indicated little or no exposure to Western culture in the area under question. The "B" answers indicated more exposure than "A" answers, but not a great deal. The "C" answers indicated more exposure than "A" or "B" answers, and "D" answers indicated the greatest exposure to Western culture.

Name _____ Birthdate _____

Home Island _____ Age _____

Home District _____ Sex _____

DIRECTIONS: Read each question silently as the teacher reads it out loud. Write your answer when the teacher tells you to. Raise your hand if you have a question or if you do not understand.

1. What kind of foods do you eat on your home island?

___ A. Mostly taro, fish and other native foods
___ B. Mostly taro, fish, native foods and sometimes rice and canned meat
___ C. Sometimes taro, fish and native foods, sometimes rice, canned meat and other food from the stores
___ D. Mostly rice, canned meat and store-bought food

a) What kinds of food do your parents eat?

_____

2. How often does your family use a boat and motor to fish?

___ A. Never. We always use a canoe.
___ B. Sometimes
___ C. Most of the time
___ D. Never. We buy our fish.

a) Who usually drives the boat?

_____

3. How often is English spoken in your home?

___ A. Never
___ B. Not very much
___ C. Sometimes
___ D. Frequently

a) Who speaks English in your home?

_____

b) Did your parents graduate from high school?

_____

4. How often are books read in your home?

___ A. Never
___ B. Not very much
___ C. Sometimes
___ D. Frequently

a) About how many books do you have in your home?

_____

b) Who reads books in your home?

_____

5. How often do you watch movies or TV on your home island?

___ A. Never
___ B. Not very much
___ C. Sometimes
___ D. Frequently

a) Is there a TV at your house?

_____

b) Who brought movies to your island?

_____

6. How often do planes land on your home island?

___ A. Never
___ B. Not very much
___ C. Sometimes
___ D. Frequently

a) How many times have you watched the planes land?

_____

7. How many times have you ridden on a ship?

___ A. Never
___ B. Once or twice
___ C. A few times
___ D. Many times

a) Where did you go?

_____

8. How many times have you ridden on an airplane?

___ A. Never
___ B. Once or twice
___ C. A few times
___ D. Many times

a) Where did you go?

9. How many times have you shopped in the stores of your district center?

___ A. Never
___ B. Once or twice
___ C. A few times
___ D. Many times

a) What stores do you usually go to?

_____

10. How many times have you traveled outside of your district?

___ A. Never
___ B. Once or twice
___ C. A few times
___ D. Many times

a) How did you travel?

_____

b) Where did you go?

_____